

Childhood Education

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Responsibility**

also

*Teaching multiplication and
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March 1956

JOURNAL OF THE
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As boys and girls assume the responsibility of childhood they will be able to assume the responsibility of their adulthood.

Courtesy, Christine Heinig, Washington, D. C.

Children Learn Responsibility

A LONG TIME AGO WHEN OUR PARENTS WERE CHILDREN, AND IN TURN their parents were children, the development of responsibility was no problem. Children *had* to be responsible members of society. There were chickens to feed, wood to chop, sweaters to knit, errands to run, small children to mind, oil lamps to fill. As the child grew, his share of duties increased and concurrently his sense of responsibility. The typical family could not function properly without the labor of its children. Today this is not so.

As a result, do we miss something? The child whose labor was

really needed must have found security in the family's very need of him. He must have accepted himself as a responsible member of the group. Are our boys and girls missing an opportunity to find themselves as responsible people?

Where consideration and love were evident in these homes of long ago, the sense of responsibility developed by children was satisfying to them and to their parents. As the child reached adulthood, the need to earn a living, of marriage, and of parenthood was accepted readily and with satisfaction. Not all children, however, found satisfaction in their work. Later, as adults and parents, these people saw to it that their children had a childhood entirely of play—"I had to work so hard when I was little I wanted Jean to grow up with memories of a happy childhood," one mother explained. Now Jean, age 21, finds it hard to perform the simplest household tasks. In other cases there was deep conviction on the part of parents that work is a necessary part of good childhood—the little hands were kept ever busy to keep idle thoughts away. One young woman reared in this kind of family looked ruefully about her compact, modern apartment which was cluttered with crocheted and embroidered coverlets and doilies. "Oh," she exclaimed, "I wish I had been taught to think instead of to embroider!" The busyness started in early childhood was almost compulsive in young womanhood.

Duty for the sake of duty will never establish a desirable kind of responsibility. In those past years children were helped to do their particular jobs because it had meaning for family living and because unquestioning obedience to parents was an accepted value. But today, does the responsibility of childhood include the same factors? Much child study, research, and observation have helped us understand how children grow and develop—we know better what they face. We need to help boys and girls accept themselves as adequate members of the family, of the schoolroom, and of the community.

Few of us keep chickens now, but most families or schoolrooms do have a pet which must be fed and given tender care; gas and electric stoves have replaced those which burned wood, but young Ann and Tim with package mix in hand can whip up a cake to delight Dad. There are still beds to make, dishes to wash, and walks to sweep. While Mommy irons, two-year-old Betsy can companionably but briefly wield her toy iron. Later, when Mommy cooks, she can "help" too by rearranging the pans on her shelf, the bottom one in the cabinet. Brother Tom, at four, enjoys work at his own small table while Daddy pores over the monthly accounts on his desk nearby.

UNDERLYING THESE DUTIES THE ADULTS MUST SEE THEIR ROLE IN ORGANIZING RESPONSIBILITIES WHICH CHILDREN CAN ASSUME. And so, as boys and girls assume the responsibility of childhood they will be able to assume the responsibility of their adulthood.—RUTH JEFFERSON, *associate secretary, Association for Childhood Education International.*

Whose Responsibility Is It?

The adult's philosophy for working with children is reflected in the responsibility assumed by the children. A significant look at the behaviors of two 4 year olds has been provided by Eveline Omwake, director of the nursery school, Child Study Center, Yale University, New Haven, Connecticut.

A 4 YEAR OLD HOLDS HER DOLL COMFORTABLY and carefully in the curve of her arm while she slowly spoons some water into the doll's mouth. So fully "responsible" a mother is she that she intently watches the baby's face for clues of distress and shifts her own position to raise the baby's head slightly. Before going to the stove to "cook" for the rest of the family she puts the baby in the carriage and neatly tucks the covers in and gives it a reassuring smile. "You be the daddy and we'll take care of the children" she says to a little boy who has been playing in her vicinity. This child not only plays at being a responsible mother; she is in general a responsible 4 year old. She does what she can for herself but asks for help when she can no longer proceed without it. She respects reasonable limits in use of space and play equipment. She loves to be "first" but cheerfully accepts turns. She is proud of her accomplishments but also relishes the process as well as the product as she paints, builds. She gets along well with other children but can stand her ground when provoked to do so.

But even this paragon sheds jacket and mittens as she enters the house and cleverly manages to slide out of hanging them up herself. She also gets wet when there are puddles to play in and a little paint on her clothing doesn't bother her in the slightest. "Mommy will soak it"

she says. She shares well but doesn't feel she always has to. When someone asked her if one of two cookies was for her sister she replied: "No, you dope, they're just for me."

Another little girl of the same age constantly cautions other children about being careful, "Don't spill your juice . . . watch out, Martin, he's going to take your gun . . . it's not nice to push . . . Teacher, Santa Claus won't bring him any toys if he is naughty, will he?" In housekeeping play: "I must be the mother and tell people what to do . . . now you be the baby sitter and do everything I say." Her verbal directions are issued in tones which suggest either anger or worry and she moves around rather frantically keeping people busy as if she is afraid they will leave her (which they do). She carries her baby while she works—but at arm's length. But this same girl never complains or asks for help for her own hurts. She is stoical about injuries, shakes off a hand offered to aid her with a hard task and looks stricken if she makes a mistake. She won't paint lest she get some on her dress. To get her clothes muddy is unthinkable.

These are two children who are each in their own way "responsible." Even though they are only 4 years old it is fairly safe to predict the kind of older children and adults that each will be-

come. In both girls the attitudes and feelings revealed through their general behavior and their play seem to be well established.

Philosophy of the Adults Counts

Considering how this came about brings us to the major premise of this article—that the primary influence on the development of a sense of responsibility in children is the philosophy and way of life of the adults with whom they grow up. The most significant aspect of this is how it comes about. Through what process adults communicate to children what it means to be “responsible” and through what subtle relationships the standards and values we want for children are taught can, perhaps, be illustrated by information about the families of these two little girls.

The first little girl who is able in dramatic play to identify with a tender, loving, responsible mother and in her everyday life show the degree of independence appropriate to her years is the child of parents who are responsible, loving, and thoughtful. They are also realistic when it comes to standards for behavior both for themselves and their children.

In this family the parents have taught by example rather than by precept or by constantly discussing behavior in terms of good and bad. This mother has her children near her much of the time—she talks to them about what she is doing and she listens to them tell about what they are doing. She has given her little girl many opportunities to take responsibility without expecting too much. When the latter helps to ice a family cake her mother doesn't run a smoothing knife over the rough spots but lets the child say: “I did this part.” When the little girl displays with pride that she has put her boots on, her mother doesn't

feel that she must at that moment point out that they are on the wrong feet. But with her older child she probably would do so.

Also in their wise and realistic philosophy these parents don't expect play clothes to stay clean or toys always to be replaced on the shelves in orderly fashion. The children's room when restored to order by them gives every indication that they did it. Their mother's standard where it is a matter of a child's responsibility is a childlike performance not a grown-up one. Her own brand of housekeeping suggests that she has standards for herself which involve a reasonable degree of cleanliness and order but her house is not always “spotless” and “tidy.” But it is “clean” and “comfortable.” Competition with her neighbors has no place in this woman's philosophy although she is a friendly person. She does not criticize their methods or goals and does not voice, at least to her children, concern for their criticisms. At the same time she does try to teach her children to respect different ways of living.

One could include many more illustrations of how a family such as this one communicates by their actions and through their relationships the values they want for their children. An important concept in psychoanalytic thought today which is especially relevant here is that of identification. This has been simply defined as “the way one person quite unbeknown to himself tends to make himself like another person.” One can see how this little girl in question is strongly “identified” with her mother as happens where there is a close relationship over a long period of time. As she grows older and has contact with a greater number of people and her experiences outside the home offer her more variety, she will test her attitudes and values to see how useful they are. Her

teachers and other adults in her life will provide opportunities for her to take responsibility as a member of a larger group. But, as her parents have, these adults will communicate more through the way they take responsibility than they will through dictating and discussing the rules by which people live and work together.

The second little girl's brand of responsibility has developed out of different experiences and relationships. Her mother has made a special effort to formulate the rules of living using the "people won't like you if . . . or you won't grow up to be a big girl . . . it is very naughty to . . ." approach. This mother seems to enjoy her children less than the other mother and while she talks about the time and energy that go into their good care her tones are angry and discouraged. This little girl can tell people how to care for a baby but she rarely initiates housekeeping play herself and ignores her own large family of dolls. She doesn't cuddle them, talk to them, or even look at them very closely. But she is responsible in a way—clean, neat, careful, and obedient. She is also anxious, afraid, and confused. She has had much credit from her mother for taking care of things. Grown-up behavior elicits a warm response from her mother in a way that no natural little girl pleasures do. She has been severely punished for failure, for carelessness, for breaking things, for silliness, for protesting, and also for pinching her brother. Her mother has found her much pleasanter to live with since she has taken on the role of her assistant in the household and checks up on her little brother's delinquencies. This would seem to be a costly way of developing a sense of responsibility since she can no longer feel pleasure in the things she would really like to do.

Needless to say this home is always spic and span. One reason is that neighbors might be critical. Just as the little girl is fearful lest people might disapprove of her if she makes a mistake, so her mother is constantly feeling "what will people think . . . if I am not a good housekeeper or my children cause any trouble?" Comparisons play an important part in her brand of teaching. "You don't want to be like so and so" or "why don't you act like Marilyn? She's such a nice little girl." It is not hard to tell where identification fits into this picture. This little girl, too, is like her mother although neither gets much satisfaction from the relationship. The impossibly high standards, the censure, the mother's own dissatisfaction with herself have communicated to the child some very destructive attitudes even though she has learned some forms of responsible behavior. This mother responds to the results of her little girl's efforts rather than her enjoyment of the process. She is likely to be critical unless they conform to adult standards.

The father in this household has not been mentioned as an important part of the picture. He is rarely home, provides well, but does not participate in family life to any noticeable degree. In this family responsibility is divided—rather than shared as was the case in the first family.

It is not hard to recognize this kind of child in elementary school or in adulthood. She will probably be successful, competent, and a hard worker. She will probably also be domineering, competitive, and critical. How much satisfaction she will feel in achievement unless she is the "best" is a question. And yet she will undoubtedly be the kind of person that can be "counted on." She is not a happy child now. How much this can change will depend on her later relation-

ships and the degree to which her teachers or other professional people in touch with her mother can help her adjust her standards to the little girl's level of ability.

Other Adults Are Important

For both these children and the many like them adults outside the family are very important. This is true despite the earlier inference, that even by 4, patterns of behavior are deeply laid. Teachers, because they are constantly in close communication with children, are in a position to reinforce the first child's attitude with good group living experiences and continued opportunity to identify with responsible adults. They can also provide the second child with different patterns to emulate and can help her find satisfaction in activities which do not involve competing with others.

As was said before, communication between teachers and children in this area is no less subtle than between parents and children. Children are well aware of teachers' attitudes toward authority, toward their fellow teachers, toward meeting obligations in full, toward care of the school building and grounds, toward community projects. One sees many evidences of "identification" in the school experience. A teacher who is especially interested in science usually has a class which is easily excited about science projects, and learns this subject easily and thereafter has a special feeling for science. Teachers who themselves enjoy painting usually have many children's paintings which are vivid and interesting hanging in the classroom.

Few children in a class "love" school if the teacher is discontented and dislikes teaching. A teacher who has faith in children and knows how much they are capable of carrying in the way of responsibility usually has a responsible group and the attitudes of the less responsible may undergo some change for the better. None of this is communicated in words but again this happens through the process of the group's "identification" with their teacher.

Research Needed on Expectations

A generally neglected aspect of this subject is the strategic position of all professional persons who are concerned with child development and education. While it might seem as if the full burden of responsibility for this rested upon the adults who live with children the situation is not so simple. Those who work in the field of child and personality development and are producing through research material for those who teach parents and teachers have as much responsibility and a great opportunity to contribute. Making it possible for parents to know how much to expect of someone aged 3, 4, 9, 12, will help them create the kind of family life in which children can learn to take responsibility. Further knowledge of what is involved for children in becoming the kind of people that their parents and teachers want them to become when their own impulses and desires are in opposition to this and the processes through which they accomplish this suggest another area which needs to be communicated to parents and teachers.

A Tribute

To serve
a little child
exact a toll that drains
away all other wealth to leave
his love.—HARRY O. EISENBERGER.

It is impossible to say that any behavior is, of itself, responsible or irresponsible. This makes the role of the adult more thoughtful as he works with children. Arthur W. Foshay is director of the Bureau of Educational Research, Ohio State University, Columbus.

What Do We Mean

ASK THE TEACHERS WHO KNOW A CERTAIN group of children to rank them for responsibility, and the ranking will show a high degree of agreement. The same children will tend to be ranked "high" and "low" by teachers who know them, even though the teachers have not consulted with one another in advance. Now ask these same teachers to explain what "responsibility" means. Their definitions will be surprisingly different from one another. To some, responsibility will mean only simple obedience. To others, the term implies self-reliant behavior. To a third group, responsibility means reliability.

How can it be that people who agree about the responsibility of particular children are in apparent disagreement about the meaning of the term itself? One answer is, perhaps, that children who show reliability also tend to be obedient and self-directing. Another answer is, perhaps, that at root there is no real difference in what these terms mean to the teachers. Each term, perhaps, may be taken as an example of the others, or they all may be examples of the root term, "responsibility." This latter explanation is promising, and we shall examine it here.

The term responsibility implies *answerableness*. This is the dictionary definition, and it makes clear why the word "response" is embedded in it. To be responsible is to hold one's self accountable for what one does. Like other attitudes, this one is to be found in the way a person thinks and feels; what he does is significant only as it is indicative of

his thoughts and feelings. To understand whether a child is responsible, therefore, it is necessary to look through his eyes at what he does. It is impossible to say that any behavior is, of itself, responsible or irresponsible. Like all behavior, what we call "responsible" behavior is dependent for each individual on his personal perception of the field in which his behavior seems to him to be relevant. His behavior always represents an attempt to place the field in an order appropriate for him; his behavior is always directed at some referent.

Jeanie stayed in the room during recess and straightened the books on the shelf. Was Jeanie behaving in a responsible way? Let's see. "Jeanie, I noticed that you stayed in this recess and straightened the books. Why didn't you go out and play with the other children?"

"Oh, the books needed to be straightened," says Jeanie.

"Yes, but why did you decide to do it just now? Why not later? Didn't you want to go out?"

"Sure, I wanted to go out and play, but my committee is going to have to use the books after recess, and I thought I could speed things up for them if the books were in order."

Now, let's suppose that this is a sufficient answer to the questions we have put. Of course, Jeanie might be covering up something. But let's suppose that she is not. Is this "responsible" behavior? It is, according to our definition. Jeanie was holding herself answerable for the efficiency of her committee's work. But suppose Jeanie, under sympathetic ques-

—Responsibility?

tioning, had revealed that she was staying in because something unpleasant might happen to her if she went out to play with the others, and that she straightened the books in order to have an apparent reason for staying in. Now would her behavior be answerable? No, according to our definition. Jeanie would not be holding herself answerable; she would be avoiding something unpleasant—and that's not the same thing.

Holding one's self answerable to others involves putting one's self in the place of another, as Tommy did when he refused to throw garbage on the old lady's porch on Halloween because he could imagine how hurt and helpless she would feel. And this kind of concern is of the highest moral importance to us. Our American legend is full of stories in which children behave responsibly (i.e., hold themselves answerable to others' feelings concerning what is just and right) even at the cost of personal inconvenience: Washington and the Cherry Tree, Lincoln walking several miles to return a few cents.

One significant element in responsible behavior is, then, that it is intended by the individual as a response to an action situation as he thinks it is perceived by those other than himself who are involved. It is mature behavior, if one defines as "mature" the ability to see things through others' eyes. It is ethical behavior of a high order in the sense that it involves following the Golden Rule.

Another important element in responsible behavior has to do with answer-

ableness to one's self. We all behave according to a self-image—a hypothesis that expresses the kind of person we think we are, or aspire to be. Among elementary-school children, this self-image is in some sense literally an image—a child judges himself by what he sees in the mirror. He is much concerned, especially as he approaches adolescence (during the so-called "circumpuberal period") with the features of his face and head.¹ His interpretation of what he finds there is heavily influenced by what he hears others say, or (so to speak) by the cultural face-stereotype as he understands it. But it is finally his own interpretation of himself to himself that guides him. Therefore, we may say, and remain within our definition of responsibility as answerableness, that a child who behaves according to his self-image is behaving in a responsible way.

The trouble arises, of course, when a child's self-image is in conflict with the needs and perceptions of others. Teachers especially have difficulty with the idea that a child can be thought of as behaving in a responsible way when the behavior frustrates the teacher. But if Jeanie had straightened the books because Jeanie thought of herself as an orderly person, she would have been responsible to herself; she would have been, in a literal sense, "conscientious." On the other hand, if Jeanie had pictured herself, let us say, as "champion of the underdog," she might have straightened the books for altogether different reasons—perhaps to defend some other child from ridicule, or (given a different classroom situation) as a way of subtly defying the teacher.

To call behavior responsible, then, is

¹ Foshay, Arthur W.; Wann, Kenneth D.; and Associates, *Children's Social Values, An Action Research Study*, Pp. 150-152. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia Univ., 1954.
Jersild, Arthur T., *In Search of Self*, chap. 12, "Physical Characteristics," Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia Univ., 1952.



Courtesy, Stanislaus County Schools, Calif.

Our job is to help children so that their perceptions square with the moral and ethical values we consider best.

to interpret motive. To know whether what we see a child do is responsible, or avoidant, or something else, it is necessary that we discover the child's motive. His motives will depend on the view he has of the situation in which he acts. This view may be adequate, or distorted, or incomplete. As teachers, we work with the views of children—their perceptions. Our job is to help children, or guide them, or even (in some instances) to insist, that their perceptions square with the moral and ethical values we consider best, since we are authoritative interpreters of the culture to the children.

As such, we are answerable to ourselves and others to see to it that our own perceptions of the ways in which one is answerable are not narrow or distorted or incomplete. This means (though the point will not be developed here) that we have to consider whether we are concerned with property values and physical-feature values at the expense of attention to the impact we have on the self-perceptions of others. We have to hold ourselves accountable for offering children a broad view of the world and what is in it, so they will not develop a restricted view of their responsibility.

Home and School Together

help children learn responsibility

Parents feel frustrated, teachers wonder what they can expect from each age level in terms of responsibility. Hugh Perkins, associate professor of education, Institute for Child Study, University of Maryland, College Park, discusses the problem through anecdotal accounts.

"I CAN DO IT BY MYSELF," SCREAMED 3-year-old Susan as she grabbed for the spoonful of sugar her mother was about to sprinkle on Susan's cereal. In reaching for the sugar spoon Susan upset her glass of milk and spilled sugar all over the table.

"Now, see what you did!" exclaimed her exasperated mother. "If you would only let me help you these things wouldn't happen."

"No!" shouted Susan bursting into tears. "I don't want any help."

A few minutes later Mother glanced at the clock and then gave 6-year-old sister a startled look. "Mary, haven't you finished yet? The school bus won't wait for you."

Just then 10-year-old Bill, who had finished bolting his breakfast half a minute before, rushed down from upstairs and out the door to join the gang of boys down at the corner.

"Bill," Mother called, "did you remember to take your rock collection you were going to show the class, and did you remember to pick up the things in your room?"

"I'm late, Mom. I've got to hurry!" shouted Bill. And with that he was gone.

Three minutes later Mother shoved a lunch box into Mary's hands, pushed her out the door, and watched as Mary ran puffing toward the waiting bus. Half an hour later when Mrs. Gray began mak-

ing the beds she found Bill's rock collection still on his book shelf, pajamas and soiled clothes lying in various parts of the room. "Oh, dear," she thought, "won't my children ever learn responsibility?"

Children and youth at all ages are working hard at the job of growing up. One of the important learnings in their development is achieving greater independence. Sometimes achievement of some measure of independence is revealed in the child's seeking greater responsibility. This was shown in 3-year-old Susan's wanting to do things for herself. On the other hand, striving for independence may be shown in what adults might term less responsible behavior. Bill moved toward independence by seeking out the gang and not heeding his mother's instructions.

Children and adults have different perceptions of what the term responsibility means. Six-year-old Mary, who had not learned to tell time, had not grasped the adult's conception of the importance of time, schedules, and establishing a routine. To Mary what she was doing at the moment was the most important thing. Mother felt Bill should be more grownup in keeping his room neat. Bill, on the other hand, viewed Mother's insistence about keeping his room neat as a sinister device for forcing on him woman's work and of keeping him from his gang.

A Teacher Can Reassure

In a conference a short time later with Miss Taylor, Bill's teacher, Mrs. Gray remarked, "I'm at my wit's end in not knowing how to instill a sense of responsibility into Bill. He's responsible enough when it comes to meeting his gang and things that are really important to him, but he never seems to remember his responsibilities around the house."

"Bill is no worse than many others in this class," Miss Taylor reassured her. "Maybe this is a problem where parents and school can work together. If we could provide experiences which were important to them but which would involve the children's assuming responsibility to assure success, then we might get some place."

In a faculty meeting discussion on "helping children develop responsibility" several teachers told how they gave children opportunities for learning responsibility through leading the class in opening exercises, checking the roll, collecting money, performing room duties, being a group leader for various class activities, answering the office telephone, and serving on the safety patrol.

"I let my first-grade children mix their own paints. That helps them develop responsibility," volunteered Miss Peters.

"I would never let my third graders do that. All they would do is to make a mess!" put in Mrs. Vann.

"Yes," agreed Miss Joseph, "it's far easier and faster to do some things yourself than to depend on children. Why, just last week one of my students forgot to feed the guppies and they all died. I make my children responsible for their own work and own behavior, but that is all, thank you!"

Later in commenting on the discussion Mrs. Barrows, the principal, remarked, "We have described several good ways in which we help many of our children

develop responsibility. Somehow I feel that our school program should provide such opportunities for all children. Are there not group responsibilities as well as individual ones?"

The Children Make Suggestions

Barbara Taylor was pondering these words the next day when she remarked to the children, "You know, there are a lot of things our school needs to make it a better school."

"We need a bigger and better ball field," suggested Bill Gray.

"Shrubbery, flowers, and trees would make our school look prettier," volunteered Julie.

"The library needs more book shelves and we need more shelves and cupboards in our classroom," suggested Danny.

Since most of the boys wanted to lay out a ball field on an undeveloped plot behind the school and the girls voted for beautifying the school grounds through planting flowers and shrubs, a joint school improvement project was decided upon. At first time and effort were wasted because groups and committees had not defined their purposes, goals, and responsibilities. Thus, many opportunities arose for learning and using the steps in problem solving. Much information had to be obtained through writing letters of inquiry, visits from experts, and the work of library committees. Picks, shovels, and wheelbarrows had to be located and borrowed.

As the planning and work of the committees progressed the conflicts and disagreements became less, and the sharing and cooperation increased. Many of the problems needing solution extended over into the areas of arithmetic, language, spelling, and science. As the projects grew in size other classes were invited to participate, and they soon became all-school projects. The PTA became inter-

ested and purchased materials and shrubbery. Fathers joined their sons one Saturday afternoon in building the backstop for the ball field. Mothers and fathers also came and helped with some of the heavier planting.

The meaning of responsibility was an important learning gained from these experiences. Three times work had to be interrupted because Bill Gray had forgotten to bring his father's steel tape measure, Paul's committee had not dug holes, and because no one had thought of getting peat moss. These children began to see for the first time that *responsibility* was not an overworked term in the verbal exhortations of parents and teachers, but that it is a quality which enables individuals and groups to contribute fully and

to share in the satisfactions of those contributions.

A short time later at PTA Mrs. Gray remarked to Bill's teacher, "Things are really looking up at home. Ever since the day Bill couldn't find the tape measure, I don't have to remind him to keep the basement clean and in order. He's even better about mowing the lawn and watching his baby sister."

"Yes," agreed Miss Taylor, "the growth in these children during the past two months has been remarkable." As partnerships in shared responsibility developed between children and adults at school and at home, new meanings to the concepts of responsibility, participation, and citizenship emerged through democratic experiences in social living.

Tone Poem for Night

Above the subtle counterpoint
and chordal structure of the whole
dark and rhythmic night

fireflies
are grace notes flickering

and an early whippoorwill
in his cadenza
like a cello sings

while soft soft an owl
gives five staccato drumbeats.

As one by one the sounds
of man diminish
the sound of earth
increases
lifts
swells

bursts
in fullest harmony,
sustaining tempo
until dawn
stills the rich augmented chords
in final soft-sung theme.

—JEANNE DELAMARTER, *Chess Game and Other Poems*
Printed by permission, Ralph Fletcher Seymour

Education for Stability

In Our Changing American Culture

"In an important sense, this world of ours is a new world . . . One thing that is new is . . . the changing scale and scope of change itself, so that the world alters as we walk in it, so the years of man's life measure not some small growth or rearrangement or moderation of what he learned in childhood, but a great upheaval. . ."

—J. Robert Oppenheimer¹

•• **A** five year old stops, looks up at the sky and talks about the "vapor trails" a jet plane leaves behind . . .

•• *A second grader suggests that the letter "v" stands for "vim as in vigor" . . .*

•• *A fourth-grade boy casually talks about degravitation, activating, supersonic, gyro-scope . . .*

•• *A group of children disagree in heated argument and look up at the teacher to decide whether it is a C₁₆ or B₁₇ that is flying overhead . . .*

Overnight, we adults find our vocabularies outmoded. Suddenly, we are asked to solve problems in areas in which we feel, and perhaps are, inadequate—in which our lack of knowledge often makes us feel surpassed.

As we look around at the rapidly changing world in which we live, it is also well to look backward. Not all of the problems which we find around us are new. As children, our parents never heard a radio and few rode in an automobile. Our grandfathers lived without telephones, processed food, or electric lights. Their fathers traveled in slow stagecoaches, whose travel time we so often compare with that of modern jet-propelled planes. Many of them died without ever having seen a train. One after another, these "new" inventions

have come into the lives of men. Mass production, atomic energy, supersonic aircraft, photoelectric cells, mass education are the landmarks of a technological age. The atom bomb is a symbol of "changing times" for this generation as the *coup de poing* (the prehistoric stone ax) was for the old stone age.

Does Change Obscure Values?

Are we permitting these external "signposts" of change to obscure those basic values, the development of character and conscience without which no individual or nation can survive? When we ask ourselves this question we are forced to look beyond the technology of our times. What kind of character is this modern giant of mechanical genius creating in our children? All of our scientific formulae and all of our mathematical measurements in terms of cubic centimeters or in logarithms cannot answer the question of why a nation whose scientists can learn to split an atom cannot learn to alter or to break a prejudice. *It will not be the hydrogen bomb which destroys, it will be the men who handle it. Those men are sitting in the school-rooms of the world today!*

We need to look back on the past to have hope for the future. Every society

¹ *The New York Times*, December 27, 1954, Sec. 1, p. 10.

and each generation has grown up in a changing world. And each generation has worried about the transformation of the life they once knew and worried about the changes their children would have to face. Meanwhile, children appear to take for granted all of the innovations and the inventions which so confuse and disturb their elders. Children take new ideas in their stride much more readily than their parents do. This may be true because we, the adults, do not realize that techniques for handling the material world are new only to us. To the child, all of the changes in material things are the "here and now" and the only real world that he has ever known.

So we worry today—as teachers of every generation have done—about our responsibility for preparing students for a world we do not quite understand and can only dimly foresee. For the adult, the atomic bomb is a sudden addition to his life, a bewildering, frightening, and not yet understood addition. It distorts his sense of values and thereby hinders his ability to evaluate the impact of this technological change upon the young.

For our children, the atomic bomb has already become an atom-powered train or automobile and, at a flick of a nuclear switch,¹ the face of the earth is changed. Guided missiles are not weapons of destruction, they are projected to haul freight and passengers to earth satellites within moments of their take-off. Adult fantasies are the child's reality.

Cultures Do Change

Cultures do change. We know of no society in the past that did not change during its history. We know of no society today that is not changing. What is new is the rapidity of change, a magnitude of change so great that, indeed, the "earth alters as we walk in it." Never-

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theless, the persistent problems of human growth and human development remain. Children continue to face their developmental tasks which they must master if they are to take the next step toward maturity; what is new is that today they face them at an earlier age than ever before. A sense of responsibility is one of these tasks. This concept in itself is not a new one. What is new is the adult approach. Formerly we expected blind obedience to authoritarian dictum. Now we interpret the problem in terms of the child's development and comprehension, for we feel that only in this way will each new step be a meaningful experience. What is emphasized further is an adult responsibility to discover, if possible, some indication of the direction in which our technologically oriented American culture is headed.

Through Our Concept of Culture

As educators, our primary approach to this problem should be through the concept of culture, for we realize that education is a continuous process which begins with birth and carries on through the entire life of an individual. One of its main concerns is the transmission of cultural heritage. Cultural emphases vary and even such factors as chronological age receive differential treatment.

Each society chooses one particular age to honor. In the islands of the Pacific, a 6-year-old boy has status beyond that of his elders. In the Orient a man or woman can look forward to growing respect and honor as he approaches old age. In Europe a man is likely to judge his personal success in life by comparing his job with that of his father. If you ask an American parent, "Do you think your life has been a success?" he is not likely

¹ See *Life Magazine*, November 7, 1955. Editorial.

to look back at his father; he will, instead, look "down" at his children. If they are able to get a better education, make a better marriage, or if they are happier than their parents were, then the American is likely to say, "Yes, I believe that my life has been a success." We have so chosen to honor *youth* that Margaret Mead, of the American Museum of Natural History, was able to say, "Youth has become the time of all learning, middle age the time of all hard work, and old age the time of all regret."

Our changing culture, as recorded in the statistics of population growth, makes this concept one of the areas of new responsibility. As our population grows, the age groups of 65 and over and of 15 and younger are increasing proportionately far more rapidly than the total population. Thus, we are growing older and younger at the same time. Accompanying this population growth, or perhaps because of it, the movement toward small houses, small apartments, and scaled-down furniture is increasing.

Men and women in all walks of life feel that parents should not interfere in the lives of their children after they are grown. Capable parents who have outgrown their roles as fathers and mothers are being relegated to the background by their families. Grandparents (not always old) are disappearing from active participation, partly through their own wishes and partly through society's judgment expressed in our social attitudes toward our aging population. Mandatory retirement practices are forcing men and women to retire by chronological age while they are still productive.

This serious public issue is matched by another not so easily seen.¹ "What does this disappearance of older persons in certain localities mean for children?"

¹ Ethel J. Alpenfels, "Our Changing American Culture," *Educational Horizons*, Vol. XXXIII, Spring, 1955, No. 3.

What new responsibilities do we need to teach? How can we plan materials that will teach respect for all ages when the society in which a child grows up stresses respect for the adolescent? How can we match our increasing medical knowledge that is extending life with an increasing intellectual and moral conviction that will develop genuine respect for the dignity of all ages? Clearly, the place to do so is in the early years of a child's life. Education, no longer family-centered, takes on another responsibility in our technical age.

Meanwhile, mechanical inventions have simplified and shortened the hours formerly spent in housework. The pressures of a culture that is "success-oriented toward material things" forces more and more mothers to seek jobs outside the home to add to the family budget. Is the need to keep up with the Joneses and a value judgment of success in terms of material security being reflected in present-day youth's constant search for "security in things?" If we believe that this trend is wrong, if we believe that there are qualities of mind, body, and spirit that our modern standards of success are dulling, we add to the confusion by continuing to stress the material side of life. Many elementary-school teachers are not satisfied with a teaching technique often described as "Show and Tell Time" when children talk about their new dresses or toys or coon-skin caps. They are searching for new ways to allow a child to express his feelings: to ascertain, if they can, the values he is developing—those nebulous, hidden, important values—that indicate emotional development.

Our Changing Roles

Another responsibility facing children is created by the changing roles of men and women in American society. What

do we really mean when we talk about the feminine role? Certainly not the antithesis of the tomboy of yesterday. Today, the star of an afternoon's baseball game will suddenly become the belle of the ball that night. Yet old ideas of femininity creep in—old fears, tinged by the concept of the ideal woman of the past, color our attitudes toward little girls and impair our judgment. Little boys, too, grow up with a confused concept of their role in society and what their attitude toward women should be. Into the personality structure of boys creep feelings of uncertainty and resentment; of girls, feelings of inferiority and envy. From the vantage point of our society we know that elements in any culture which make life artificial and are unrelated to human behavior cause personal conflict. We need to examine what the changes in the role of men and women mean for the future. We need to isolate those changes. Perhaps we need to ask some searching questions of the values which shape our attitudes toward the role of boys and girls, determine our courses of study, and motivate our entire teaching program.

These facets of our culture have brought new responsibilities for the adult and the child to work out together. For the adult there is another and perhaps even more important responsibility in education for stability—the development of consistent behavior. During the early years of life, a child shares the experiences of those who are close to him, he identifies with those whom he loves. Later, a child's model is his peer. We adults compare his physical development, his attitudes, and his behavior with those of his peers. We say, "Susan keeps her desk so tidy, but Mary's is always in

such a mess." Then, suddenly, our children have learned to play the game of "peer" comparisons with equal skill. They, too, compare their responsibilities with their peers, "But, Mother, Susan can stay out till one o'clock and you always make me come home at twelve." And we, the adults, answer, "I don't care what Susan does. Your father says you are to be home by twelve o'clock."

Habit patterns of long standing become automatic. Changing them requires conscious effort, and to suddenly be forced to develop new patterns of responsibility is even more difficult. "Peers" are rejected and personal behavior and achievement are now determined by home standards or individual performance. We must be consistent. Instead of comparing one child with another, there is a need to develop a sense of responsibility for one's own behavior and a desire to do things "on one's own." A child's development—physical, social, emotional—must be evaluated in terms of that child's growth. Automation will not change the essentials of human growth and development. It will not change the age-old responsibilities of mankind—to find the ways of developing in ourselves, and then in our children:

—A sense of inner security under the pressures for conformity.

—A flexibility so that we may face new developments with confidence and adaptability.

—A willingness to see the whole of life and ourselves as a functioning and integrated part of that life.

—A recognition that, no matter what happens, each one of us still has the power to select from many values those which we choose to serve.

MEN DON'T KNOW HOW TO LIVE TOGETHER AS MEN BECAUSE THEY HAVE not learned to live together as children.—LAURA ZIRBES.

Discipline in the Nursery School

Discipline helps the child to recognize his responsibilities. This description of discipline in the nursery school has meaning for adults working with children of all ages. Katherine H. Read is director of the nursery school, School of Home Economics, Oregon State College, Corvallis.

"I'VE HEARD THAT CHILDREN ARE allowed to do anything they please at nursery school."

"I've heard that nursery schools don't believe in discipline."

Every nursery school teacher has listened to words like these at some time. Many parents of nursery school children have been disturbed by such comments. Many teachers in grade schools have wondered what discipline is really like in the nursery school.

The only possible answer to this kind of remark is, of course, "We do believe in discipline. How could we live together if we didn't believe in discipline!"

What Is the Real Question?

Questions about discipline are usually a matter of recognizing what methods are being used when the old familiar ones are lacking. We all believe in discipline but what do we think it is?

Discipline in the form of punishment—a scolding, or denial of a treat—is clearly labeled for all to see. But when discipline appears in other forms, when it is put into effect by preventing a misdeed, by sympathetic handling, it sometimes goes unrecognized. An observer who sees a child treated in a kindly way after he has hit another child may overlook what actually happens. He may only notice the absence of the punishment which he is accustomed to see.

In swinging away from the rigid

"boss" type of discipline, the pendulum swung over at first to a permissiveness which literally let children "do anything they pleased." Since this was the period when nursery schools were increasing in numbers, they felt the full effects of this swing away from the old-fashioned type of discipline. Nursery school people have had to find their way painfully back to a middle position. They have had to redefine what they mean by discipline. Their experiences may be helpful to other teachers.

Making the Discipline Fit

What kind of discipline is the nursery school teacher trying to use today?

First of all, we are learning to scale down our demands to fit the child. This may mean that we concentrate on one lesson at a time, letting other things go until later. For example, if a child is having to adjust to the presence of a new baby brother or sister at home, we are not likely to insist that he share a favorite nursery school toy with other children. We may let him be a bit "selfish" at this point so as to ease the burden of the sharing which he must inevitably do at home. Living comfortably with the new baby is the foremost task at the moment.

Making the discipline fit the child means deciding what the child may be readiest to learn at the moment as well as deciding what he is not ready to learn. We are all familiar with the tremendous



Photo by Tonks Studio, Orange, N. J.

Nursery school discipline allows a child time to conform when conformity is necessary.

urge to touch things which the normal healthy 2 year old has. In a group of 2 year olds the nursery school teacher quietly puts the object which shouldn't be touched out of reach. Of course, children have to learn sometime not to touch things, but that lesson fits the developmental pattern of the 4 and 5 year old much better than the 2 or 3 year old. Disciplining a 2 year old for touching

things may mean that he becomes a less spontaneous person rather than just a better behaved one. No, in a good nursery school you won't see a young child punished for touching an object, but you will see the teacher standing between him and temptation. No discipline? She's helping him remain a spontaneous, confident person. First things first!

There will be no discipline, either,

for the child who spills his food or uses his fingers in eating. His muscles aren't too well developed for success with table tools yet! But the child who keeps poking his neighbor at the table will be stopped and perhaps moved away where he can be more successful. The problem will be reduced for him, in other words, to a level where he can manage it.

Individual circumstances may be allowed to alter cases, too. Here is an example. Betsy was a bright 3 year old who was struggling to free herself from the domination of a sister two years older. The older sister was intensely jealous and expressed it by trying to dictate almost every move Betsy made at home. In the freedom of the nursery school Betsy could relax but she was quick to resent anything which seemed to her like domination. One day, irritated by something, she angrily threw a book on the floor. The teacher quietly said to her, "I want you to put the book back on the table." Betsy replied with feeling, "I won't. You can't always have what you want." And the teacher, realizing what the child was struggling to prove, that one doesn't always have to be bossed, answered, "That's true. I can't. I'll pick the book up myself this time." No discipline? Perhaps, but it may lessen the rebellion of a child and make self-respect and self-confidence easier someday.

To Be Clear about Limits

In nursery school we make an effort to be clear about the limits we set and to maintain them as consistently as circumstances permit. It's surprising how often it's only a matter of making it really clear to the child what's expected of him—clear in his mind as well as in ours!

We are beginning to realize, too, that children can be more spontaneous and creative when they live with grownups

who are willing to take responsibility for maintaining limits. Any child feels freer to explore if he is sure that he will be kept within safe limits. Young children have strong feelings, but little capacity to control these feelings. They are likely to hit, bite, or throw things and then they are frightened by what they have done. They feel safer and can be freer if they know they can depend on grownups to stop them before they go too far.

Much of the unreasonable, destructive behavior of some children may be just a seeking for a point where someone will take the responsibility for disciplining them. It is not unusual for a child to want to be punished when he feels he's been naughty. Nursery school teachers, like all good parents and teachers, try to be responsible for setting and maintaining reasonable limits.

Allowing Time To Conform

Nursery school discipline includes allowing a child *time* to conform when conformity is necessary. The old-fashioned kind of discipline stressed instant obedience. The teacher today may say, "You'll need to put your boots on before you go outdoors," but she does not expect the child to march right over and put his boots on. She isn't surprised, in fact, if he protests. If he tries to go out without his boots, she stops him and repeats the rule but she lets him accept it in his own time. It's still discipline for she doesn't let him go out without his boots.

The child may even express his feeling quite strongly at this point and tell her he doesn't like her. An observer might say that here is an example of how children do anything they please! But our observer should remember that the child is talking this way because he isn't allowed to do just as he pleases. The teacher is in control but she is perfectly

willing to have him express his feeling. *If there is anything we have learned from our investigations in the realm of human behavior, it is that feelings need to be expressed.* It's the feelings that remain bottled up inside that make people cranky or even dangerous later. Good discipline only channels the expression of feeling into ways that do no harm. It does not block expression of feeling.

So the teacher does not feel offended or like a failure when the child tells her, "You're a bad teacher." Instead she answers, if she's an experienced teacher, "I know, I seem like a bad teacher to you because you want to go out without putting on your boots and I can't let you." And she feels sympathy for this small person whose boots may be tight and hard to put on and who may want so much to get outside where he can swing or ride a tricycle. She will try to make it easier for him somehow and she will be glad that he can spill out his feelings but she will maintain the rule—boots on. This is hardly absence of discipline but it is discipline in a different form.

If he starts to "drain off" his anger by hitting another child, she stops him quickly and firmly. She doesn't blame him for the anger but she tries to help him keep its expression within safe limits. Words are a harmless avenue of expression, suited to his stage of development. It is true that when he's 24 instead of 4 he can't tell his boss what he thinks of him, but by that time he'll have other avenues open to him for draining off feeling. We call it sublimation when we drain off feeling in music or art or in athletics. But at 3 or 4 the child must use the immediate avenues open to him. He must act his age.

He Must Test Out the Limits

As a final point in regard to discipline we might add that the nursery school

teacher values the child's urge to assert himself, to "test out" the limits she sets, but in doing this she is not afraid to say, "No." A healthy child will disagree at times, "I don't like that;" or he will reject, "Get out of here;" or he will defy, "I'm not going to." The fact of his resistance is healthy and the good nursery school teacher will value it even though she cannot let him act out his resistance. When it's time to leave school at the end of the morning, for example, the child must go even if he doesn't want to. The teacher will help him leave while respecting his right not to want to go. She does not call him "naughty" or "shame" him for his feeling or his behavior. She is glad that he wants to be an independent person.

Discipline of this kind makes it easier for the child to accept himself along with the necessary limits set by authority. It makes it easier for him to exercise self-control as he grows in maturity. Resistance is healthy in a child but accepting it does not lessen our responsibility for maintaining sound discipline.

The old type of discipline too often made a child feel humiliated just as he strove to be independent. The new discipline helps him see that he is respected for wanting to be independent although it insists that he find acceptable ways to develop that same independent self.

If we were to sum it up briefly we might say that discipline seems more important than ever today. We have made some progress in the *way* we use discipline although many times our practices fall short of our goals. Since discipline is taking new forms, it becomes important that all who work with children learn to recognize its new forms. Every child will be helped when parents and teachers can get closer together on the subject of discipline.

By EDWINA DEANS

Some "HOW TO DO ITS"

Teaching Multiplication and Division Facts



Photo by Margaret Adams, Lakeville School, Great Neck, N. Y.

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"I CAN SEE THAT CHILDREN NEED TO have a concrete approach to addition and subtraction, but when they come to the multiplication and division facts don't they just have to memorize them?" This question is often asked. Must the initial approach to multiplication and division be memorization or can children also explore and discover facts in these processes when the opportunity is provided? Let's consider: (1) some of the general considerations which are necessary for successful teaching and learning of all arithmetical processes, and (2) some of the activities and experiences which enable children to discover multiplication and division facts for themselves.

General Considerations

There are certain general considerations which apply to the learning of all processes in arithmetic. Among these are:

Grouping to meet the needs of individuals.

The use of materials as aids to thinking.

Understanding the number system.

Grouping to meet individual needs.

While some grouping on an administrative level is probably desirable, achievement in arithmetic can be only one of the factors considered in placing each child in the group which promises the greatest growth for him. Also of concern are social development including emotional control, learning rate, age and size, special interests and abilities, other children in the group, and the teacher who will guide the group. Since all of the important factors in successful learning and living together cannot be taken care of administratively, some sub-grouping within the classroom is desirable at times to realize certain purposes.

The more able children in a group

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need help with delving deeper into each aspect of arithmetic which is introduced. They can learn several ways of arriving at an answer or of solving a problem. They can gather statistics and create their own number story booklets. The brighter children, because of their ability to generalize and to apply what is learned to new situations, will be able to find more varied uses for the multiplication and division facts—every day uses, games requiring these processes, and the like. In addition to contributions of this type which serve a useful purpose to the class as a whole, their own interests in the processes themselves and in what they can do with them will further their understanding of arithmetic as a science of numbers.

If some of the children are slow learners, they will need more experience with objects to aid the thinking process, more drawing and diagramming, more opportunity to interpret pictures illustrating number ideas, and more experience at every other stage along the way to abstract learning.

In every classroom sub-groups formed to meet specific deficiencies or weaknesses are necessary. To illustrate, a small group of 10 year olds may be handicapped in going forward with division because they do not yet have adequate control of the multiplication and division facts to insure success with the more complicated phases of division. A sub-group provides these children with the opportunity to place concentrated effort at a specific point of weakness.

Using materials as aids to thinking. Neither concrete nor semi-concrete materials serve any useful purpose except as they help the children to think and thereby to advance toward understanding of abstract ideas. There is no magic in a set of one-inch wooden cubes or in a one hundred counting frame. But these cubes

and similar objects can be the instruments through which the child learns to attack an arrangement such as this



in different ways. In this process the group of children working together share their ways of thinking. The child whose only method of determining the total to this arrangement is to count by ones, "1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9" hears his fellow group members make comments such as the following: "I start with 3 because I don't need to count 3. Then I say 4, 5, 6—7, 8, 9." "I start with 6 because I know 3 and 3 are 6. Then I say 7, 8, 9." "I say 3, 6, 9. I count by 3's." "I just know three 3's are 9." In other words, materials can help children learn to think in progressively more abstract ways as they share their ways of seeing and describing arrangements.

Certainly all children do not need the same amount of experience with materials. Some seem to have the ability to use relationships from the beginning, to capitalize on what they already know in working out unknown answers, and therefore have little need for materials except to prove the accuracy of their thinking.

One of the major responsibilities of the teacher is to help each child think and perform at the highest level of which he is capable. To expect the child who can do abstract thinking to use materials extensively is not only to waste his time but to lower his level of functioning. The opposite is equally true. The child whose only method of getting an answer to a multiplication or division question is to count it out on his fingers cannot be expected to jump from this immature stage to abstracting ideas from the symbols alone.

(The author wishes to digress a moment to deal with the question "Is it all right for children to count on their fingers?" It seems

to me there is no cut and dried, Yes or No, answer to this question. To the extent that teachers are obligated to accept children at their level of understanding the answer is Yes. But to give an unqualified Yes answer is to accept a low level of performance with the same grace as a higher level. This, it seems to me, is to sell the child short. The most valuable result is the information the teacher gathers. He knows the child's level of performance when he observes the manner in which he counts his fingers. He knows whether the child counts all numbers involved, or some of them only. He can also determine whether the child counts accurately or inaccurately and whether errors are due to starting at the wrong place or to repetition or omission of digits. Let us then, as teachers, encourage children who must count their fingers to do it openly, showing us exactly how they use their fingers to arrive at answers. Let us not, however, be satisfied that an answer thus obtained is as good as any other. Let's accept it for what it is, an immature level of performance. Here is a child who needs help to enable him to perform at a higher level. Let's see that he gets the help he needs to move ahead.)

Understanding the number system. Exclusive of the multiplication facts with one and zero, there are only eight facts which do not involve two-place numbers. These are two 2's, two 3's, three 3's, two 4's, and the reverses of these. It is obvious, therefore, that before a child progresses very far with the multiplication and division facts he needs some understanding of the number system as related to two-place numbers. The fact "two 5's are 10" demands a new interpretation. The familiar "1" which has previously stood for a single unit now means one group of ten units. Enough of the numbers from 10 through 99 must be interpreted to help children draw generalizations such as:

- Any number from 1 through 9 tells two things—how many there are, and whether the quantity under consideration means so many single units or so many groups of 10.

• Zero also tells two things—that there are no units, and that zero must be used to give the groups their meaning of 10's.

• Any or all of these numbers from 10 to 99 can be pictured or represented in a variety of ways—on a counting frame or abacus, with bundles of 10 sticks and separate sticks, packs of 10 tickets and separate tickets, or by children's clasped hands and outstretched fingers. The first of the two numbers (the digit to the left) denotes the 10's quantity in each case while the second number (the digit to the right) denotes the 1's quantity. It must be remembered that the names of the teen numbers are not consistent with their meaning. *Thirteen*, *fourteen*, and *fifteen*, for example, stand for 10 and 3, 10 and 4, 10 and 5, although the part meaning 10 is heard last and therefore does not agree with the placement of digits. Careful teaching and increased emphasis are necessary to help children remember this inconsistency in the structure of our number system and to prevent reversals of these numbers when children think about them or read and write them.

The facts with 1's and 0's in multiplication and division are best learned as generalizations about the number system. It is not necessary to provide experience and practice on all of these facts. Children can discover that one group of any size always gives that group—one 5 is 5, one 2 is 2 and so on. They can discover through "pretend" situations that if they have nothing in a group, it makes no difference how many of these groups they think of, there is still nothing in the group; if they have a group of any size and do not use it, they have nothing.

In leading children to draw generalizations, let us be careful that these general-

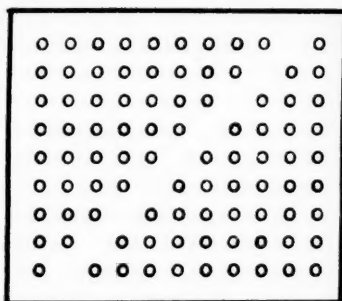
izations are truths and not tricks. For example, there is the trick of learning the 9's in multiplication by adding the digits involved—two 9's are 18 (1 and 8 are nine); six 9's are 54 (5 and 4 are nine); nine 9's are 81 (8 and 1 are nine), etc. If this trick is used with children, let's help them discover why it works as they study the number system. And furthermore, let's help them to discover what happens when a similar procedure is applied to 8's or 7's. A hundred counting frames can be set up or children can arrange 9's using cross section paper. (See illustrations A and B.)

Activities and Experiences

Real teaching occurs only when children learn. The teacher makes the selection of appropriate activities and experiences which provide the opportunity for learning to take place. He develops within himself the ability to determine where children are in their thinking about numbers so that he has a sound basis for the choice of activities. He acquires the art of observing, listening, and questioning, and the patience to listen and learn from what children do and say.

The best learning is active learning. The "doing" will usually include social, physical, and mental activity. At this point, let us consider the possibilities for the active participation of children in activities through which they can explore and discover facts for themselves. Most of the activities suggested will take place before the textbook is used and will prepare the child to use the textbook more as a testing instrument than as a teaching instrument. The textbook is one way of helping him to see how well he is learning, and what emphasis he needs to make in the future. It cannot furnish him with all the "doing" aspects of learning.

Illustration A



One 9 is 9
Two 9's are 10 and 8 more
(One left in first 10 and 8 of the next 10)
Three 9's are two 10's and 7
Four 9's are three 10's and six, and so forth.

Children who think of four 9's as 3 and 6 are not stating a truth but are using a trick. To help them discover that four 9's are the same as four 10's less four, or three 10's plus 6 is an observable truth. The fact that the two digits making up the number 36 give nine then begins to make sense. Without this understanding the child may attempt to get answers to the "8's" by adding the digits in the answer. But, is there a recognizable principle also at work with 8's? Provide children with 10 strips of cross section paper and let them find out.

Building readiness. As children meet informal problem situations demanding the use of equal groups for solution, readiness for the processes of multiplication and division begins to develop. Cards for a picture lotto are distributed so that each player has the same number. Children divide themselves into equal groups for games. They determine how much money each must bring to make the amount needed for a particular purpose, or the number of turns each can have at a coveted classroom job which is rotated equally among the children. The teacher guides them through these activities helping them to build beginning ideas about equal groups—how the size of the equal group changes with the number of players or how the expense for each person is lessened as the number sharing the cost increases. Ways of determining answers may be crude. Yet basis for exact thinking is being laid.

Exploring equal groups with objects. Objects serve a useful purpose in helping some children to think about the quantity under consideration. As children use objects to discover the addition and subtraction facts for the numbers below 10, they can begin to think also of the equal groups which can be made from these numbers. How many 2's can be arranged from 6 blocks, from 8, 4, or 10 blocks? Six blocks can be rearranged into 3's, and 8 blocks into 4's. Asking children to find out how many 2's can be arranged from 7 blocks, or how many 3's from

Illustration B

						8		
				16				
			24					
	32							40
						48		
				56				
			64					
	72							80
						88		
				96				

One 8 is 8 (2 less than 10) 8
Two 8's are 16 (2 of the first 10 plus 6 more)
 $1 + 6 = 7$
Three 8's are 24 (two 10's plus 4 more) $2 + 4 = 6$
Four 8's are 32 (three 10's and 2 more) $3 + 2 = 5$
Five 8's are 40 (four 10's and no more) $4 + 0 = 4$
Six 8's are 48 (four 10's and 8 more) $4 + 8 = 12$
Seven 8's are 56 (five 10's and 6 more) $5 + 6 = 11$
Eight 8's are 64 (six 10's and 4 more) $6 + 4 = 10$
Nine 8's are 72 (seven 10's and 2 more) $7 + 2 = 9$
Ten 8's are 80 (eight 10's and no more) $8 + 0 = 8$

There is order to the arrangement of 8's just as with the 9's. But the sum of the digits does not give 8; the digits descend from 8 or from 12 by ones. Would this be an interesting fact for children to discover? Are there similar patterns of structure for 7's, 6's? Let's provide children with the opportunity to find out and to determine the help they can receive from such an analysis as has been made for 9's and 8's. Perhaps a workable principle for teachers is to avoid giving a trick if the why of the trick cannot be discovered or understood.

8 blocks gives them early experience with remainders.

Similarly, as children learn the more difficult addition and subtraction facts (those beyond 10) they can explore the equal groups in the span of numbers between 10 and 20. They find that some numbers give even equal groups while others like 11, 13, 17, and 19 always have remainders regardless of the size of the group used. Equal groups of 3's or 5's can be made from 15, but when groupings of 2's and 4's are attempted, a remainder results. Let children discover how many different equal groups they can arrange with 12 blocks or with 16 blocks.

Following this type of exploratory experience some children may profit from making patterns based on 3's, 4's and 5's for the same number in the span from 10 to 20.

Illustration C

Here is the number 12 arranged in 2's.



In 3's—a triangular pattern:



In 4's—a quadratic pattern:



and in 5's:



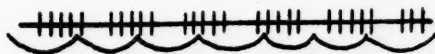
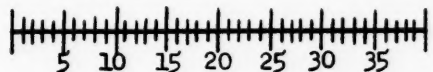
Observation of these patterned arrangements helps children to draw certain conclusions and to see and use relationships. The more objects they place in each group, the fewer groups they will have. Four 3's are the same as 6 and 6. Three 4's are the same as 8 and 4. Four 3's are 12, and three 4's are 12. Six 2's are 12 and two 6's are twelve. Twelve cannot be divided equally into 5's.

Exploring equal groups with "fixed" materials or drawings. When children begin to explore the numbers from 20 to 50 they can work more effectively and efficiently with materials which are "set" or "fixed" in a definite framework of some kind. Examples of such materials

are the 100 counting frame (10 wires with 10 beads on each wire), one hundred counting board (markers arranged in 10's in a shallow wooden box), or a one hundred dot chart. Whatever devices are used, thought should be given to arrangements of materials which will facilitate rapid grouping with the eyes and which will eliminate or minimize the necessity for counting by 1's. This can be done in two ways: by using two colors or objects and arranging them so that there are 5 of one color and 5 of another color making up each 10; by separating dots so that they can be grouped readily into fives and tens.

Illustration D

Materials having a linear arrangement such as 100 spools or 100 clothespins on a string or a magnified ruler marked in segments showing 1's, 5's, and 10's are useful for helping children discover multiplication and division facts. Four 4's are the same as 15 and 1 more or 16; five 4's are two 10's and so forth.



If the child wishes to find out how many 3's in 24, he can take a three-marker (three spaces identical with those on the magnified ruler) and see how many times it can be applied within the 24 spaces on the ruler.

Using relationships—a higher level in thinking. If children have had ample opportunity to explore and discover facts for the 2's, 3's, 4's, and 5's, many of them will be ready to use what they already know as a means of working out unknown facts for 6's, 7's, 8's, and 9's. Indeed they will know many of these facts as a different way of considering equal groups already discovered. Three 6's can be rearranged to show six 3's, and eight 4's to show four 8's. Children learn the facts for the 5's and 10's with relative ease if they have a good understanding of the number system. All of

these learnings, together with familiar processes of addition and subtraction, can be useful to them in the mental discovery of unknown facts. For example, here are some ways children have thought out facts for themselves using known facts as a basis for their thinking:

$$\begin{array}{r} 7 \\ \times 6 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

Six 5's are 30; six 2's are 12; 30 and 12 are 42; so six 7's are 42.

Six 6's are 36 and 6 more would make 42.

$$\begin{array}{r} 9 \\ \times 7 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

Seven 10's are 70; take off one 7 and you have 63. So seven 9's are 63.

It's the same as 49 and 14 or 63.

$$6\overline{)54}$$

In 60 there would be ten 6's; so in 54 there are nine.

$$8\overline{)56}$$

In 40 there are five; in 16 there are two; so in 56 there are seven.

Organizing facts into table form. The child's first attempt to organize facts into tables may be a picture table developed from instructions such as the following: "Imagine that you are a carpenter and that you are making three-legged stools. Show with a picture the number of legs you will need for 1 stool, 2 stools, and so on until you have 10 stools." (See illustrations E and F.)

Practicing to make learning permanent. The textbook provides practice exercises which will lead children toward permanent learning if adequate preparatory work has preceded its use. There are commercial games available which are useful aids in fixing facts at this stage of learning. Practice cards which the children make themselves are helpful to some children. These may be made following evaluation to determine on which facts practice is needed. Cards may be

Illustration E



One 3 is 3

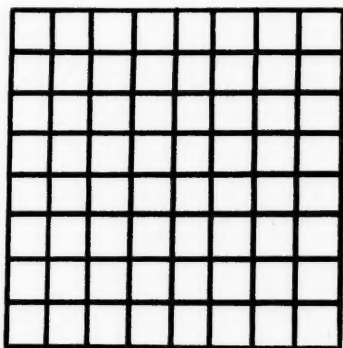


Two 3's are 6



Three 3's are 9 and so forth.

Illustration F



Cross section paper in inch or half inch squares can be used to construct tables.

One 8 is 8

Two 8's are 16, etc.

Children may be helped to arrive at answers by doubling facts they already know or by adding onto or subtracting from facts they know. If they know two 8's are 16, four 8's will be 16 and 16. If they know four 8's are 32, eight 8's will be 32 and 32.

prepared with facts on one side and a study technique on the other. Instead of having the answer the child has a way of arriving at the answer. Study techniques are most beneficial when worked out by each child for his own practice cards. They should be checked carefully by the teacher for accuracy. See illustration G for practice cards:

Illustration G

$\begin{array}{r} 7 \\ \times 6 \\ \hline \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 30 \\ + 12 \\ \hline \end{array}$
--	---

Front

Back

$\begin{array}{r} 9 \\ \times 4 \\ \hline \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 40 \\ - 4 \\ \hline \end{array}$
--	--

Front

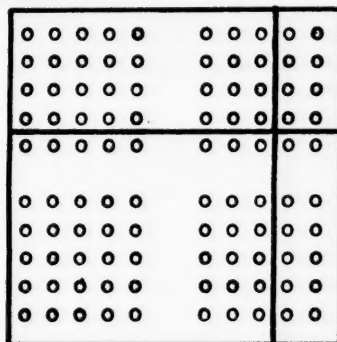
Back

Some children may profit from a small 100 dot chart arranged as shown in the diagram. It should be pasted on heavy cardboard for durability. Two rubber bands are used to mark off the fact desired. The child determines the amount shown between the two rubber bands. (See illustration H.)

Conclusion

Some of the important general considerations which are basic to good teaching of arithmetic have been discussed as they relate to children's learning the multiplication and division facts. These include grouping children for learning,

Illustration H



Four 8's are the same as 20 and 12 or 32; or the same as 16 and 16 or 32.

the use of materials as aids to thinking, and understanding the number system. Typical activities and experiences which help children to learn the facts with meaning and understanding have been presented. It is obvious that the key person in this entire process is the teacher. It is his responsibility to determine the children who can profit from each activity, how much of a given experience is appropriate, when learning has been successful, when a new step or procedure is in order, and of what it should consist. He is concerned with helping children realize the value of arithmetic in the solution of life's daily problems and at the same time in giving them an appreciation for arithmetic as a science.

AS CHILDREN GO ABOUT THE EVERYDAY BUSINESS OF LIVING, THEIR EXPERIENCES involving number are legion. Thinking and planning, building and cutting, shaping and measuring, observing reactions, organizing data, and drawing conclusions are a continued part of every child's life. Through such experiences meaning is brought to number.—MARION NESBITT, *A Public School for Tomorrow.*

My Individualized Reading Program

Tess Gurney, a teacher in the Greenville County Schools, Greenville, South Carolina, responded with this story when asked for an anecdote on "How I Got Out of My Rut." We thought it should be shared in its entirety.

"WHAT ARE WE GOING TO READ NEXT?" questioned an alert sixth grader as he placed a forefinger in next to the last story of his basic reader. This was a question of which I had not been completely unaware. Eight weeks of school remained, and we had almost finished the basic reader. Some thought had been given to the situation but no satisfactory conclusion had been reached.

Knowing that children themselves can often find a better solution than the teacher, I answered, "Oh, I don't know. Perhaps we will review our favorite stories in this book. How would you like that?" The chorus of "no's" from the reading circle confirmed my own opinion that little can be gained from re-reading material already studied and enjoyed.

"Let's do something different," piped a carefree tomboy on my right. That idea struck home. Could the children near the conclusion of the year be as weary as I of basic reading lessons? Remembering the struggle of the past week to keep eyes and interests inside rather than on the call of birds and fragrant spring air on the outside made me think so. "Something different" might be the answer for reviving lagging interests and subduing restlessness that always accompany last weeks of school.

As twilight descended that night I spent an hour in honest questioning of

myself. Has my teaching been too stereotyped? Have I often bored the children? Am I up to my neck in a quagmire of theory and standards procedure? Is there a more interesting way to present and carry out a successful reading program? As I pondered these questions, a recent remark made by my supervisor, on individualized reading, flashed through my mind. Now, there was something different!

We discussed the plan, and it seemed an ideal way to teach reading. I decided to end my dilemma by giving it a try.

When the plan was presented to the students, they eagerly accepted this "different" way, and before I could think further, they enthusiastically made plans for an immediate beginning. As soon as many different books on many levels replaced the neat row of basic readers, we launched the individualized reading program.

Each Child Made His Selection

It was interesting and amazing to watch the teeming individuals around the bookshelves. Each child made his own book selection with the understanding that it was his reading book until he completed it. This was necessary for good vocabulary building. Timid Norman elbowed his way in for *Pioneering in Democracy*. Slow Buddy turned through several books before selecting one with many pictures and large printing. Uninterested Elizabeth picked a book of short biographical sketches featuring the girlhood of famous women. Emotional William simply laid his hand on the nearest book and sat down. J.B., the avid reader, was well into his first

story before many others were settled. There was never before such eagerness to gather in the reading circle, so it was with a great deal of satisfaction to me that individual work was well under way.

I placed my chair in an inconspicuous corner for observation of the entire group doing silent reading before calling someone for a brief oral reading lesson. This procedure allowed each child a silent reading time every day, and left me free to aid four or five children individually.

Bruce asked to read first. His request was granted and he quietly moved his chair beside mine. He quickly unfolded the plot of the story he was reading. I asked him to read the most exciting part. He acquiesced with a page of conversation. He read with no stumbling or pausing but with a smooth flow of words full of meaning for him. He used his own conversational tone and expression. I wondered if this type of teaching would fully challenge Bruce.

Maxine came slowly with a beautifully bound book. She remarked that she had been reading a good fairy story; however, not one thing could she relay to me. Could she, I questioned, have understood more if some thought-provoking questions had been given to guide her?

There were both satisfaction and discouragement at the end of the first day. It was gratifying to see expressions of joy, sadness, or awe on the children's faces as the stories seemed to become lifelike and real to them. However, it was somewhat discouraging to see the slower readers casually leafing through the books.

Individual reviews on how we "get out" words alone helped Jerry with the first short book he selected. He chose the next book with more care, and I noticed that the word *helicopter* and other aeronautical terms were not difficult for him

to comprehend. Interest made the difference with Jerry.

There Were Problems To Solve

Day by day there was increased interest in the reading time. These typical statements made during the planning period indicate the value of this type of procedure. "Why don't we read first in the morning?" asked Jack. "Let's have a long reading time," requested Mildred. "I always have to stop just at the best part," said James Alton. Then, of course, there was always someone like Andy, "Aw, who wants to read? My old book is no good."

Consequently, when Andy came to my corner, rather than reading, we talked a little about the things he liked best. My questions stemmed from the book in his hand and the creative writing he had done during the year. It wasn't long before I found that he had selected a book completely foreign to his interests. We selected another book. He slowly pulled his glasses from a hidden spot in the desk and carefully placed them on his face. That day his silent reading proceeded without interruption, and I could not reprimand him for disturbing others with his loud guffaw.

Private sessions with oral readers who were both slow and hesitant gave them opportunity for correction and practice without embarrassment of criticism from those who read more fluently. As these children gained more self-confidence in oral expression, they began to volunteer for audience reading during our early morning devotional period. They needed such encouragement as is difficult to give in group situations.

Faulty eye movement and lip reading are easier to detect and diagnose individually than in a large circle. Individual correction procedures seemed effective toward improvement of reading speed.

Just to watch William, a boy with many problems, during the reading period gave me a clue as to the guidance he needed. Ordinarily he read rather well; however, when he had difficulty in getting started on his work or read haltingly and carelessly, I concluded that he was seething inside. Individualized reading did not solve his problem, but it afforded me an opportunity to have individual conferences with him. I believe these conferences helped relieve some of his inward tension.

There was a feeling of exaltation one morning when the devotional committee presented a short medieval play which had been discovered during the reading period. "We like this play because Elizabeth found it," remarked one of the girls. When I asked about the props and simple costumes, Maude answered, "Oh, there is a story in my book about life in the middle ages, and some information on costumes in our reference books!"

In that moment I said a silent prayer for having the courage to deviate from the normal reading procedure. These children were rapidly learning and using reading skills for themselves which is, after all, our chief objective in the teaching of reading.

Evaluating the Program

Individualized reading may not be the answer for the total reading program, but from my brief experience it does seem to have unlimited advantages; of course, there are certain limitations, too. I miss the thrill of group discussion previous to or following the silent reading circle. It is hard to give up the good-natured give and take of their critical thinking. It seems that the slower chil-

dren really need the confidence of the other members of their small group as they work together on problems of word attack, phonetic practice, and thought-provoking questions.

However, it is most stimulating to learn of the varied interests among the average readers. They come many times to show me material which they have discovered on science, social studies, and health. In fact, they help much more with the daily planning and thereby the whole program becomes richer and more satisfying to them.

And those fast readers! Shame on me for holding them to one story when they are amply capable of reading several during the given time. And from this wide reading range come affluent vocabularies overflowing into their own creative writing. Art subjects become more numerous, and class discussion becomes full of fervor.

I shall begin in September with the individualized reading program in order to observe my new group of children and learn their fields of interests before tackling the basic readers. Although this reading program is not Utopian—neither is any other—it is, however, an exhilarating and enjoyable experience for both teacher and children, and it provides an excellent means for keeping a reading program clear of obstruction and hindering pitfalls. It is most stimulating to lift a group above the depressing ruts which tend to narrow mental activity and thereby proceed freely along the same roadbed of progress and cultural refinement. Thus we move nearer our basic philosophy and concept of purposeful education for the individual child.

READING MAKETH A FULL MAN, CONFERENCE A ready man, and writing an exact man.—BACON.

concerns for children are worldwide

. . . In Japan

HERE ARE A FEW ASPECTS OF THE COMPLEX problem of the rehabilitation in Japanese education.

"Article 26. All people shall have the right to receive an equal education correspondent to their ability, as provided by law."

By this article in the Constitution of 1947, the Japanese people have given expression to their desire and their recognition that their children hold the right to a free and democratic education. The people's concern for their children has found its embodiment in law.

Under the guiding spirit of the new Constitution, the Fundamental Law of Education was established in 1947, setting forth epoch-making principles for Japan's new education system. The old concepts of regimentation and nationalism, of education for the State, were rejected and replaced with the spirit of academic freedom and individual esteem. Education shall aim at the full development of the personality and the individual who is dedicated to truth and justice and imbued with a deep sense of responsibility and independence. The law states the basic principles of Japan's educational system: equal opportunity, compulsory education, co-education, public education, social education, no political indoctrination, no religious indoctrination, and responsibility to the people.

A series of statutes followed which completely reorganized all aspects of education. The most important, the School Education Law, promulgated on March 31, 1947, detailed the new system. The major provisions include: the establishment of the 6-3-3-4 system to replace the double-line and discriminatory system of old Japan; three additional years of compulsory education required, totaling nine years; the principle of prefectural (state) and local autonomy in educational affairs firmly established, thereby limiting national governmental influence in the control of education. The law, in addition, provided for the establishment of primary, secondary (junior), and high schools, universities, and schools for the blind, deaf, and mentally and physically handicapped children on the primary and secondary levels.

Prepared by the Staff Information Section, Embassy of Japan, Washington, D. C.

This, in brief, is an outline of basic legislative reform in one fundamental aspect of education. While reforms in the fields of teacher training, school administration, educational finance, social education and higher education have also been implemented, it is in the field of public education and reconstruction that the problems have been most urgent. Here Japan has faced and still faces tremendous problems of financial responsibility.

Reconstruction Urgently Needed

The end of the war found school facilities in a terrible state of destruction and disrepair. Nearly 3000 school buildings had been totally destroyed and over nine million square feet of school building space had been burned. The greatest destruction had occurred on the secondary school level, the level through which compulsory education was to be extended. To further complicate the situation, the majority of the buildings which had been untouched by the war directly were in a deplorable state of repair. During Japan's eight years of war, the major portion of the national budget had been allotted to the building and the support of the military machine. Building materials were severely rationed and difficult to obtain, thereby limiting construction and maintenance. In addition, buildings damaged by earthquakes, floods, and typhoons, which yearly take their toll, had been inadequately repaired.

Despite this very obvious lack of facilities, the people wholeheartedly accepted the new school system and its extension of the period of compulsory school attendance. In terms of the number of students who would attend school for a longer period, there was an increase of 1,030,000 students in 1947 when the new system was inaugurated; in terms of classroom shortages, the new system required a minimum of 76,000 additional rooms. This need centered on the secondary level.

Today, 10 years after the conclusion of the war, only 68 percent of the destroyed school space has been reconstructed. The financial burden upon local and prefectural governments has been the most severely limiting factor influencing rehabilitation. Despite the desire of local communities to undertake reconstruction programs, they have found it



necessary to call for national governmental assistance. While private schools have been able to accomplish a reconstruction percentage of 89 percent, the lack of public funds has limited public school reconstruction at present to only 63 percent. Indications are that reliance upon financial assistance from the national government will continue for many years.

While facing overwhelming reconstruction problems, which demand the most immediate attention, the people have not ignored the need for a balanced and well-planned advance in all phases of education. The Japanese Education Reform Council, in placing its recommendations before the Government in 1947, stated: "We must remember to include in our considerations that this re-equipment plan must not end simply in reconstruction work." Their report called for programs whereby new and restored schools would accord with the needs of population, industry, and cultural development. In terms of buildings, the Council specifically noted the imperative need for durable structures of reinforced concrete to withstand the yearly ravages of fire, earthquake and typhoons; minimum space of 3.5 sq. ft. per primary student and 4.7 sq. ft. per secondary student; adequate physical training space; and buildings with facilities adequate in keeping with the need for social education. Statistics for 1952 indicate the immense problem: 90 percent of the primary schools were still wooden structures, many of which should have been condemned; while only 8 percent of

the secondary schools were constructed of ferro-concrete.

Two Other Aspects

Two other important aspects have received greater emphasis in this revolution in Japanese education: education for the handicapped and the school lunch program.

Prefectural governments now hold the responsibility of establishing primary and secondary schools for blind, deaf, and mentally and physically handicapped children. The nine years of compulsory education applies to these children, although this requirement is being progressively implemented as facilities become available.

The concept of providing school lunches was accepted very early in the history of Japanese public education. Under the new school system, the principle has been firmly established that school lunches are necessary for improving the physical well-being of the students and for instilling proper nutritional habits. The objective is to provide at least one-third of the daily calories required by children. These meals are divided roughly into two categories: the complete luncheon, which includes a main dish plus milk and bread, the supplementary luncheon, without bread.

Today over 7,000,000 elementary and nearly 300,000 secondary students (about 53 percent of the students to be covered by this program) are receiving full or partial benefit from the school lunch idea.

As with all aspects of Japan's new educational system, constant financial problems plague the successful operation of this particular undertaking. The national food shortage has severely hampered the program. The development to date has depended primarily upon the importation of supplies of wheat flour and animal and vegetable proteins from the United States. In fact, without such assistance, the program would never have been possible.

These are but a few of the problems confronting Japan in its determination to bring to its children the benefits of a modern and responsible education. The people have shouldered this responsibility gladly despite the great and sometimes impossible financial burdens. The Japanese people have expressed their concern for their children in law and in personal sacrifice in the knowledge that only through a free and democratic education can the future be secured.

You'll Hear These Outstanding **SPEAKERS . . .**

Among the many features you will enjoy at the ACEI 1956 Study Conference in Washington, April 1-6, are the addresses by outstanding educators at the several general and special sessions. Each will discuss some phase of the conference theme, "Exploring Resources for Work with Children." Among the speakers are the individuals pictured here who will address the general sessions. You still have time to arrange to be with us. For registration or further information, write today to . . .

Association for Childhood Education International
1200 Fifteenth St., N.W., Washington 5, D. C.



ALICE MIEL
Professor of Education
Teachers College
Columbia University
New York City



1956 **Study Conference** **April 1 - 6** **Washington, D.C.**



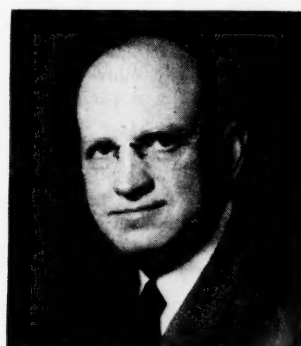
HARALD FLENSMARK
President-General
World Organization for
Early Childhood Education
Copenhagen, Denmark



THOMAS G. PULLEN, JR.
State Superintendent
of Schools
Baltimore, Maryland



BONARO OVERSTREET
Author and Lecturer
Falls Church, Virginia



HAROLD E. WILSON
Executive Secretary
Educational Policies
Commission, NEA
Washington, D. C.

NEWS and REVIEWS

News HERE and THERE . . .

By FRANCES HAMILTON

New ACE Branch

Providence Area Association for Childhood Education, R. I.

Reinstated

Fayetteville Association for Childhood Education, N. C.

Lock Haven State Teachers College Association for Childhood Education, Pa.

New Life Members

The ACEI welcomes the following people as life members:

Gerald S. Craig, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.

Emilio Edualino, Ann Arbor, Mich.

Mr. Edualino is secretary-treasurer of the Association for Childhood Education of the Philippines.

ACEI Building Fund

The building fund for the ACEI Center in Washington continues to grow. It now totals \$22,547.80. This money has come from state associations, local branches, and individuals. A member in Canada and another in Sweden have sent gifts. Anna Holmberg of Norrkoping, Sweden, when sending her gift, said: "With best wishes for the new year and many thanks for all good stimulation and good thoughts I get from the Association for Childhood Education. Especially, I am grateful for the days many years ago when I visited your office and for all the kindness from all people there. You arranged my visit in the United States and gave me much time. I hope your Building Fund very soon will be big enough."

You, too, want to share in the development of the ACEI Center. The goal set is \$225,000. Many gifts both large and small are needed.

ACEI Conference

Just under the February snow are the crocuses, waiting quietly to begin the procession of spring flowers. I keep thinking of spring this year as being just for "ACEI."

The Headquarters library is adorned with a vase of pussy-willows from Atlanta, Georgia.

The same mail in which they came brought word that perhaps forty people will be in Washington from Georgia for the 1956 Study Conference. If you are from further north, don't wait for the pussy willows to remind you to register for the ACEI Study Conference. Do it now and be with us in Washington, April 1-6.

The President Speaks of Children

Dwight D. Eisenhower, President of the United States, in his State of the Union Message to Congress on January 5, 1956, said: "Good education is the outgrowth of good homes, good communities, good churches, and good schools. Too, our schools face pressing problems, problems which will not yield to swift and easy solutions, or to any single action. They will yield to a continuing, active informed effort by the people toward achieving better schools."

School Facilities Council

The newly organized School Facilities Council of Architects, Educators, and Industry has the following objectives:

1. To promote the best possible education and educational program for children, young people, and adults with continuing improvement of school design, school facilities, and equipment.
2. Solicit and promote wide and continuing interest, understanding, and active support on the part of business, industry (including management and labor), educators, and the public in general for the betterment of school facilities.
3. Seek out authentic information for improving school facilities through instruction and provision of channels and media of wide and effective dissemination.

Twenty-three people from the fields of architecture, education, and industry form the executive committee planning for the future activities of the council. The Executive Secretary of ACEI is a member of the Executive Committee.

PTA National Convention

The 60th annual convention of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers will be held in San Francisco, California, May 20-23, 1956. Mrs. Rollin Brown, national PTA president, stated that the convention will devote increased time to discussing PTA co-

operation with the various youth-serving agencies and to standards of employment that will attract and hold qualified teachers.

Once Upon a Time

The school children of Denmark and Americans of Scandinavian descent cooperatively have presented the children of the United States with a nine foot bronze statue of Hans Christian Andersen on the occasion of his 150th birthday. Georg Lober, an American sculptor of Danish parentage, designed this.

Today this sculpture is more than a memorial to a popular, world-loved, widely read creator of "wonder tales for children." It is also more than a symbol of warm friendship, for it comes at a time when it may be used to spark a movement to establish an outdoor story telling center in Central Park, New York City, where the statue will be placed. Professional storytellers will read aloud there not only from Andersen's works but from those of other authors whose tales have a special appeal for children. This will introduce a European custom centuries old, where many cities are peppered with outdoor storytelling centers. These are thought to have had a profoundly beneficial influence on the development of the young.

This center may even attract adults for Andersen himself once stated, "I get hold of an idea and tell a story for the young ones, remembering all the time that father and mother are listening and we must give them something to think about too."

Critical School Shortages

Nearly one million American children are being deprived of full educational opportunities during the current school year according to a survey released recently by the National Education Association. The United States enters its 11th straight year of increasing enrollments. The report shows shortages of teachers and classrooms will continue to squeeze children into understaffed, overcrowded, often obsolete school buildings on half or part-time schedules.

Advance Estimates of Public Elementary and Secondary Schools, the annual look-ahead picture of public education prepared by the Research Division of NEA, indicates at least 900,000 students are attending school in shifts or for so-called half-day sessions. Previous studies have shown one in three pupils in urban elementary schools attending

overcrowded classes where it is impossible for teachers to give every child the individual attention he needs.

Approximately 171,000 new teachers are needed in 1955-56, according to the survey. In order to obtain enough teachers to reduce classes to a "teachable" size approximately 47,104 additional teachers would need to be employed.

The enrollment in teacher-education institutions is not gaining rapidly enough to fill this need, says the NEA Research Division.

UNICEF Film Available

Assignment Children, a documentary film account of Danny Kaye's 40,000-mile tour on behalf of the United Nations Children's Fund last year, was released in 16mm sound to schools, churches, clubs, and other community organizations, starting January 1, 1956.

The 20-minute Technicolor production presents Danny in the role of a modern Pied Piper who brings smiles to thousands of underprivileged, undernourished children of the Far East. In addition to his fun-making the children and their parents learn from UNICEF lecturers how to avoid disease and receive inoculations against yaws, TB, and malaria.

The film graphically demonstrates the work of UNICEF in improving health, welfare, and living standards of needy children in the world's undeveloped areas. *Assignment Children* is available on a rental basis from Association Films' regional exchanges in: Ridgefield, N. J. (Broad at Elm), La Grange, Ill. (561 Hillgrove Ave.), San Francisco (351 Turk St.), and Dallas (1108 Jackson St.).

New Vassar Film

Learning Is Searching is the title of a newly released film in the series produced by the Child Study Department of Vassar College. This is the 13th film in the series for which the N.Y.U. Film Library has been the primary distributor since 1940. The film was directed by L. Joseph Stone and photographed by Josef Bohmer at the New Lincoln School in New York City and is an on-the-spot observation of a project in process in the third grade.

This is the first Vassar film to concern itself directly with the elementary school curriculum—with how the teacher can use modern insights into children's needs in achieving the universal goals of education.

Books for Children . . .

Editor, CHRISTINE B. GILBERT

YOUTH, YOUTH, YOUTH. Stories of Challenge, Confidence and Comradeship. *Selected by Albert B. Tibbets. New York: Franklin Watts, 699 Madison Ave., 1955. Pp. 246.*

\$3. This anthology of stories for boys explores the problems many young people face in growing up—boy-girl relationships, problems of family and school, and getting along with other people. The anthologist, Mr. Tibbets, has been a newspaper man and a Boy Scout leader for years. This will be a popular addition to the "Terrific Triple Title" series. *Ages 11 to 16.*

THE PONY EXPRESS. *By Lee Jensen. Illustrated by Nicholas Eggenhofer. New York: Grosset & Dunlap, 1107 Broadway, Pp. 154.*

\$2.50. The Pony Express era of America's development, though brief, has always held a special fascination for children, for it is one of real adventure. In the opening of the west-

ern frontier, obstacles of weather, wild animals, outlaws, and marauding Indians all had to be overcome to get the mail and the express through. About 100 line drawings of the period are used to illustrate the stories, thus giving a sense of authenticity to the book. *Ages 10 to 16.*

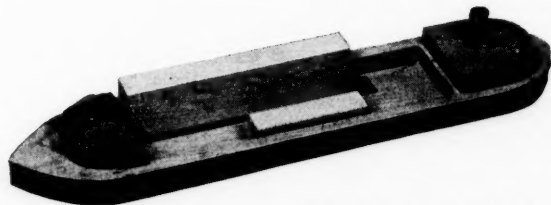
THE AMIABLE GIANT. *Written and illustrated by Louis Slobodkin. New York: Macmillan, 60 5th Ave., 1955. Unp. \$2.25.*

Misunderstood giants are a source of great amusement to children. This is a story of a giant who tried to be friendly but who so frightened the townspeople that they ran into their houses and hid, leaving him to become more and more lonesome. Louis Slobodkin's story is reminiscent of the old folk tales. The illustrations in color and in black and white point up the humor of the story. *Ages 5 to 9.*

THE SHY STEGOSAURUS OF CRICKET CREEK. *By Evelyn Sibley Lampman. Illustrated by Hubert Buel. New York: Doubleday, 575 Madison Ave., 1955. Pp. 218.*

\$2.75. What would you do if you found a dinosaur in the desert and then found out that

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no one would believe you? Joan and Joey Brown had such a problem, and what they did with their shy dinosaur friend makes a most amusing story. There are relatively few stories about dinosaurs for children, and since they hold such a special fascination for young people, it is good to have this book. *Ages 8 to 12.*

A LEMON AND A STAR. By E. C. Spykman. New York: Harcourt, Brace, 383 Madison Ave., 1955. Pp. 214. \$2.75. Stories of earlier times, when mother or grandmother were girls, are always popular with children, and especially so when their lives are adventurous, as were those of the four Cares children. The Cares grew up in the early part of the 19th century "when there were run-away horses, when lightning came down chimneys, when there were bats in the piazza awnings and rats to frighten the cook—and when a miracle could happen anytime." Keen imaginations and unbounded energy add to the mischievous exploits the children think up to outwit each other and the adults with whom they come into contact. Humor and suspense will make this popular with readers 10 to 14

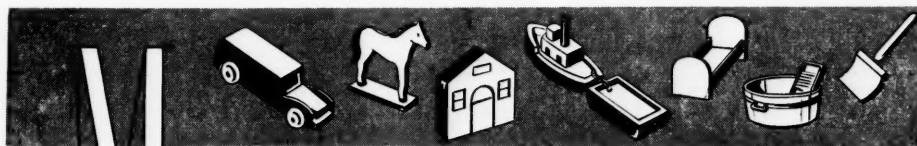
who wish they could be like uninhibited Theodore, Jane, Hubert, and Edie.

MILLIONS AND MILLIONS AND MILLIONS! Written and illustrated by Louis Slobodkin. New York: Vanguard Press, 424 Madison Ave., 1955. Unp. \$2.50. Young children love to exaggerate, and a million of anything seems to them to be the ultimate. They will be intrigued by the drawings of millions of different things, from hats to telephones to goats, but there is only one *You* and one *Me*. While the story is slight, it presents an important concept for young children. How Mr. Slobodkin achieves so many different shapes and sizes in his pictures is a real accomplishment. *Ages 3 to 6.*

JUNKET. By Anne H. White. Illustrated by Robert McCloskey. New York: Viking, 18 E. 48th St., 1955. Pp. 183. \$2.75.

YIPE. By David Malcolmson. Illustrated by Morgan Dennis. Boston: Little, Brown, 34 Beacon St., 1955. Pp. 128. \$2.75.

All children who admire dogs (and who doesn't) will love Junket, an Airedale with a
(Continued on page 351)



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Books for Adults . . .

Editor, CHARLES DENT

ADMINISTERING COMMUNITY EDUCATION. By Ernest O. Melby. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, 1955. Pp. 325. \$6.

"Educational administration must move the professional staffs of our schools, universities, teachers colleges, state departments of education, and professional organizations to an inspired level of performance far and away beyond any of our past achievements . . . educational administration must identify, organize, and mobilize all the resources of the community for an all-out educational program."

These two challenges to administration exemplify the spirit and imagination of this book by a leading education professor. The author describes in an interesting and intricate way the relationships of school administration to the professional staff, the universities, state departments of education, state and federal governments, and many other agencies concerned with the public schools.

Note: All reviewers are on the faculty of the University of Texas, Austin.

He not only describes how education interacts with these various organizations and agencies, but illustrates specifically how the administrator may relate himself more effectively to them in administering public-school programs. The author reveals a keen insight into: (1) the impact on education of world-wide social, political, economic, technological, and moral conditions as well as the direction education in a free society must give these if mankind aspires intellectually, morally, and spiritually; (2) his understanding of the job of the school administrator and the approaches the administrator must take if he is to play his rightful role in shaping the kinds of educational programs which will meet present-day needs.—*Reviewed by ROY M. HALL, director, Southwest School Administration Center.*

NOW IS THE TIME. By Lillian Smith. New York: Dell Pub. Co. 200 5th Ave., 1955. Pp. 126. Paper, 25¢ (The Viking Press, 18 E. 48th St. Cloth, \$2.). "Neither literature nor history reveals the existence of any real race prejudice in the Western world until about two centuries ago," says Lillian Smith. As the European powers conquered and

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exploited Asia and Africa, as they sold trustful Africans into slavery, white men tried to appease their own conscience by saying that these people of darker skin were different, were inferior, were not entitled to the protections of the ethical code which restrained white men in their dealings with one another. In the United States in the early years, great fortunes were built in the North on the slave business, and the plantation system of the South was based on slavery.

Reconstruction wiped out the old patterns for living together, and Reconstruction engendered a new bitterness and antagonism. Thus segregation came about first as an emergency measure. But once set up, segregation became a favorite gambit in the political strategy of demagogues, who appealed particularly to whites who were poor and ignorant and uneasily aware of their own inferiorities, by loudly proclaiming a cult of "white supremacy." Added to this political motive for denying civil liberties was an economic motive for keeping Negroes in virtual peonage meant greater profits to certain whites. Yet to the South as a whole the inferior position accorded Negroes meant an economic loss,

both because Negroes were prevented from making their full potential contribution to the community and because the cost of maintaining a dual system of schools laid a heavy burden on taxpayers.

Two school systems in every Southern community generally resulted in inferior schools for both races. Yet even if adequate funds could be raised for separate schools for Negroes and whites, "separate" schools could never be "equal." A child's feelings are even more important than the physical school plant, and a child who is subjected to the daily humiliation of being stigmatized as inferior simply does not have equal opportunity.

In the North, there has been less discrimination in school, but Negroes have suffered much discrimination in housing and in employment opportunities.

In the global struggle for power America needs the friendship and cooperation of all the peoples of the world. Over the face of the earth the dark-skinned people outnumber those with lighter skins. But these darker-skinned peoples will continue to distrust America, as long as she continues to discrim-

(Continued on page 346)

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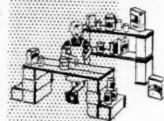


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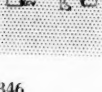
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Books for Adults

(Continued from page 345)

inate against her own dark-skinned citizens.

Miss Smith recognizes that for many people deep-seated emotional conflicts are involved in questions of segregation or integration. She offers practical suggestions for "Things to Do and Things to Say" to make the transition easier, answers questions most often asked by those who fear integration, and offers a helpful bibliography for further reading.—*Reviewed by LEIGH PECK, Educ. Psychology.*

THE FIELD OF SOCIAL WORK. (3rd edition.) Arthur E. Fink, Everett E. Wilson, and Merrill B. Conover. New York: Henry Holt and Co., 383 Madison Ave. 1955. Pp. 619. \$5.25. This book has become a classic

source of information about the profession of social work. The triple authorship of this 3rd edition broadens the base of coverage and reflects the team relationships of social work which are becoming increasingly common. As indicated in the preface, the rapidity with which knowledge and practice in this profession are growing and developing increases the necessity for new light on human needs and new approaches in serving these needs.

This volume, authored by the dean of a school of social work, a representative of social case work, and another of social group work and community organization, bears further evidence of social work's joint approach to problems which confront the profession. The wide use of illustrative materials further enhances this work.

The addition of chapters entitled "Problems Which People Bring to Social Agencies," "Social Casework," and "Social Services to the Aged" round out earlier editions of this book and give a more comprehensive survey of this field. Of necessity, new illustrative material is used, since increasing knowledge resulting in changes in practice make records of earlier practice outmoded. This new material is well chosen. The list of sources for films is a welcome and helpful addition.

Of especial interest and help to members of ACEI should be three chapters on Problems People Present (emphasizing the continuing influence of early childhood experiences and relationships with parents), Welfare Services for Children (including the child in his family and group, contemporary social services for children, such as day nursery and foster day

care, as well as protective services), and School Social Work (containing material on individualizing the school child, relation to teachers, working creatively with the teacher, the burden the child carries, and relation to the child).—Reviewed by LORA LEE PEDERSON, *Social Work*.

SOCIAL FOUNDATIONS OF EDUCATION.

By Harold Rugg and William Withers. New York: Prentice-Hall, 1955 Pp. 745. \$6.75.

A most provocative book for those who are charged with the educational task of not only "to pass on the culture, but, in doing so to pass on it." The authors have challenged teachers to face this problem: How well do we understand the nature and problems of this complex culture into which we have the major role of inducting students?

It is easy to agree with the authors that "nothing is more important in the education of the teacher than to understand the powerful and subtle process by which the culture molds our young people and the indispensable role of the teacher in guiding it." If teachers gain this kind of understanding, then education must consist of thorough study of all aspects of the behavior of the "whole individual in the whole culture." In an attempt to interpret our complex culture and human behavior within this culture, the authors stated that they tried to do these things:

... to constantly seek the essence of American civilization by seeing its parts in relation to one another and in relation to the total world scene.

... to seek the profound psychological ideas and beliefs that propel civilization, the factors that have produced its problems, and the history of the great movements through which it grew.

After a consideration of the problems of our times, our culture, and its development, a chart is given for a program of education. Education which will be focused on the total civilization is described in this way:

... If our democratic culture is to become rational and organized with consistency around (1) its irreducible foundation: population, natural resources, and developed technology; (2) its institutions; and (3) its core concepts—if so, it will be done only as the people themselves, over long periods of time, educate themselves to do it. Only as the people generally understand that their cultural foundations—their institutions, ideas, beliefs, and values—are altering, will they see the importance of studying them. Only as they grasp the fact that American culture is literally going through a great transition will they do something systematic about rethinking their problems. Once a considerable minority of the people have succeeded in grasping

(Continued on page 348)

SOCIAL STUDIES FOR CHILDREN IN A DEMOCRACY, 2nd Edition

by JOHN U. MICHAELIS, *University of California (Berkeley)*

This new second edition of a widely-adopted text has been completely revised with much new material added.

There are new references, bibliographies, pictures, charts, examples, exercises, questions, problems. There is fresh material on attitudes, child development, map-reading and -making, preparation of test items, improvement of group work, practical ways to develop democratic behavior.

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Books for Adults

(Continued from page 347)

the essentially transitional character of our times and the disintegrating conflicts in our culture, they will authorize a cultural approach and cooperate with the teachers in developing it through the national system of education.—Reviewed by CLYDE MARTIN.

CHILDHOOD IN CONTEMPORARY CULTURES By Margaret Mead and Martha Wolfenstein. Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Press, 5750 Ellis Ave. 1955. Pp. 459. \$7.50.

This book of analytical studies of the world of childhood in many cultures is especially pertinent at this time in a world "... in which peoples jostle one another in the news, in the corridors of the United Nations, as students in universities all over the world—some of whom are just escaping from the Stone Age, some battling with elaborate and sophisticated oriental and Near Eastern traditions far older than the West's, some attempting to recapture lost homogeneities, and some clinging fanatically to new, just attained cultural styles..." Careful reading and study of this book should result in added

understanding of the personality development of our own children as well as appreciation for the national character of many peoples.

The authors show how a variety of materials can be analyzed for psychological and cultural understanding of child rearing. Observational studies are presented of child-rearing practices in Balinese, French, and traditional Jewish cultures. An analysis of child-rearing literature from 19th century America, recent America, and Soviet Russia is given. Studies of fantasies for and about children and children's imaginative products from several cultures have been analyzed. Records of interviews with parents and children and clinical studies are included. Rather novel methods of collecting data about children are given, as well as the information gleaned from the interpretation of the studies.

In the final chapters the authors discuss the implications of the insight gained from research studies of childhood in contemporary cultures. Highly recommended reading for the educator who wants to "lift his sights and extend his horizons" in the understanding of children.—Reviewed by CLYDE MARTIN, Curriculum and Instruction.



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Among the Magazines . . .

Editors, LUCY NULTON and Teachers
P. K. Yonge School, Univ. of Fla., Gainesville

One cannot continuously give out daily of mind, spirit, energy, as teachers must do, without replenishment. In this issue we bring articles which we have found to be refreshing, rebuilding, broadening.

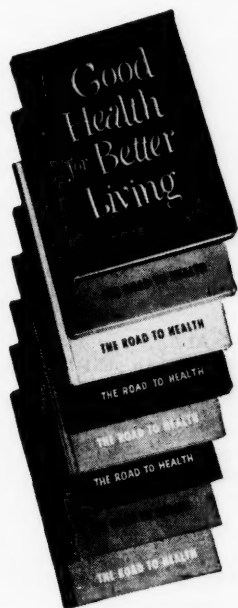
First, those which are related to professional interests. One teacher was interested in how to help parents with the homework problem. After considerable search she found "Whose Homework Is It Anyway" *Parent's*, Jan. 1955. A mother who went to the school to find out about homework of her two children tells how parents can help boys and girls without doing their work for them. She points out how parents can help achieve the values of homework, noting that when school and home work together common goals are more easily attained. "If Parents Help With Reading," Dolch, *Elementary English*, March 1955.

Dolch points out the two kinds of reading children do at home and emphasizes, "Home reading must be happy reading if home reading is going to promote reading ability." He does not recommend that parents teach children how to read, but states there are many things a parent can do to help a child learn to read, stressing the teacher's role in this most important problem.

These articles reminded us of Corbally's "Homework That Teaches," *NEA Journal*, Nov. 1953, which was worth going back to. This led to *Parent's Magazine* "You Owe It to Your Child to Prepare Him for School," Aug. 1955, a two-page story based on research that gives suggestions in pictures and concise captions and "If Your Child Plays Hooky," Jan. 1956.

In *Ladies' Home Journal*, Nov. 1955, Dr. Spock and Dr. Shapiro discuss, "A Child's Position in the Family." They have a related article, "The Youngest and the Oldest Child in the Family," in the Dec. 1955 issue. These help adults understand how a child can be helped in family relationships.

(Continued on page 350)



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Among the Magazines

(Continued from page 349)

"What Makes Him Tell Lies?" Anna W. M. Wolf's page, Nov. 1955 *Woman's Home Companion*, turns a searchlight on adult relations to children. The Dec. 1955 issue gives, on her page, a good all-year guide for toy selection.

The staff of *Nation's Business* presents, Nov. 1955, a most thorough analysis of problems that were coming before the White House Conference. It is heartening in its awareness of crucial problems and some of their less often recognized aspects. Various points of view are given. Whatever comes out of the conference, this is worth filing for repeated use.

The author of "A New Way to Pay Teachers," Dec. 1955 *Reader's Digest* (from *Collier's*, Sept.), is obviously arguing for his point of view on the merit system. It is also obvious that he has overlooked or ignored a number of factors involved and that he believes the public school system of a democracy should be organized and administered as a hierarchy. Nevertheless, for teachers whose

blood pressure runs low from fatigue, here is an article which will shoot up the blood pressure and which, like other inaccurate, inflammatory, and lucrative attacks on schools, is going to have far more influence than its value warrants. It is interesting that so many of the articles of this nature appear in the highest paying magazines!

"One cannot live by bread alone," even the bread of good, solid professional articles, and if he is to be a good teacher replenishment of mind and spirit must come through many interests and wide reading which "maketh a full man."

In the *Christian Herald*, Dec. 1955, I.A.R. Wylie opens an article with a faculty discussion of wantonness and cruelty on the part of teenagers. "What is it we have not taught them?" "Compassion," answered a timid, young teacher. Wylie discusses compassion, its meanings and values.

Our children we now teach are going to grow up to live with children of India who will have come through this period. Are we giving them any understandings which will

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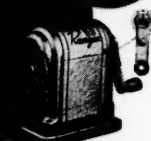
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help them live next door to one another? Are we, ourselves, making any struggle to understand? "There are two ways of remaining in a state of dangerous ignorance about another nation": p. 42, *Atlantic Monthly*, Dec. 1955, "The Way the New India Thinks," by Aubrey Menen of India. Also in this issue: "The Bounds of Space and Time," "Creating a School," and "Dr. Flesch's Cure-all." Don't miss "New Books for Children."

In *J. of American Folklore*, July-Sept. 1955, Wm. R. Bascom's "Verbal Art" is unusual and stimulating. Lucile Charles' "Drama in War" gives insight into the meanings of war.

Holiday, Dec. 1955, Jan., Feb. 1956, beautifully supplements and further illustrates our own new feature on what is happening to children in many lands. "This is a work of human geography, an attempt to see and understand the small, very diverse lives of the young in many parts of the globe."

Worth looking up: *Look*, February 21, 1956, for the excellent article "What Is a Teacher?" Included is "A Magna Carta for Teachers."

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Books for Children

(Continued from page 343)

very special sense of responsibility, who liked to see everything "just so." When his family, the Jellicots, left the farm and were replaced by the McDonegal family, who didn't know much about country living and, moreover, who disliked dogs, Junket decided to do something. What Junket did is told with gravity and humor, heightened by Robert McCloskey's excellent illustrations. *Ages 8 to 12.*

Yipe is also a dog with a definite personality and real work to do, for he had to take care of the farm and the family who lived there. *Ages 8 to 12.*

Notice to Readers

Every year ACEI Headquarters receives orders for materials which have been advertised in CHILDHOOD EDUCATION. These orders have to be returned to the sender, which causes a delay. Always order books and materials direct from publisher or manufacturer.



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WRITE FOR THE HOLGATE CATALOG



**HOLGATE BROTHERS
COMPANY**

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Over the Editor's Desk

A Real Classroom Bank

We've heard about classroom banks but it seems to me none have ever served a more concrete service than one operating in a sixth grade of which I heard.

The need arose when children forgot their milk money, wanted to make a telephone call, purchase school supplies, or buy their lunch tickets. So the group investigated the functioning of a bank and set up their own. Individuals deposit their money or make withdrawals during designated banking hours. However, in case of need, checks can be written against their accounts. So far they have not set up a policy for borrowing.

Writing for Childhood Education

This editor would like to tip her hat to another editor and call attention to her page "The Editor's Notebook," *NEA Journal*.

In the November *NEA Journal* Mildred Fenner answers questions of would-be authors. These points are just as valid for would-be authors of *CHILDHOOD EDUCATION* with two exceptions:

- Unsolicited manuscripts should be in our

office approximately five to six months before the month they might fit.

• Remember that *CHILDHOOD EDUCATION* is developed on a theme. The theme is carried in the May issue for the forthcoming year and outlines are always on hand in our offices.

Next Month "How Shall We View Delinquency?" is the topic for the April issue of *CHILDHOOD EDUCATION*. The February issue with the topic, "What a Child Values," and this issue on "Children Learn Responsibility" were planned to lay the groundwork for the issue on delinquency.

Howard Lane challenges us with the editorial, "No Child Is Born To Be Delinquent."

"Building a Sound Personality" by Harry and Bonaro Overstreet; "Different Agencies Work Together on Delinquency" by Annie Laurie Peeler; "The Challenge of Broken Pieces" by J. Ernest Somerville; "Police-Teacher Amity" by William Wattenberg are articles encouraging us to find better ways of working together.

"Do Our Children Need Preschool Experiences?"—by Orlo and Robert Chamberlain—discusses the importance of the pre-school years in the life of the child.

"Time, Space, and the Developing Child" by John Goodlad and Margaret P. Ammons is the second section. "I'm a Re-tread" by Lela Leisenring provides "The Teacher" section. "Concerns for Children Are Worldwide" will report from Denmark.

News and reviews will bring information on ACEI and other new developments in education, reviews of books for adults, books for children, and bulletins and pamphlets.

SISTER

By The Berenstains



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"I'm glad I don't have Miss Carr's job. All the time—decisions, decisions, decisions."

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